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ABSTRACT

This booklet consists of five articles. The first, "Bilingual Education: Reading through Two Languages," by Arturo Luis Gutierrez, stresses the importance of teaching Spanish-speaking children to read first in their native tongue. The second article, "Teaching All Children to Read," by Donald E. Critchlow, discusses methodology and the problems the classroom teacher must be able to cope with. The third article, "Linguistic Understandings for the Teacher of Spanish-Speaking Children," by Manuel T. Pacheco, points out the differences and similarities between Spanish and English which the teacher must know in order to recognize and deal effectively with the problems of interference in the speech and writing of the Spanish-speaking child. The fourth article, "Instructional Strategies for Oral Language Development," by David Dillon, gives suggestions on how to improve the oral language ability in English of Spanish-speaking students. The fifth article, "Three Patterns of Bilingual Education Programs" by Eduardo M. Hinojosa, briefly discusses the concurrent method, in which the two languages are used interchangeably; the use of the native language at the beginning of the instructional program, with a gradual transition to the foreign language; and the use of both languages in different blocks of time throughout the instructional program. (CFM)

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Donald E. Critchlow, Editor

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Preface

As preparation for my term of office I reviewed requests for services and examined the role that the membership expected the Texas State Council to play as a professional organization. In doing this I found that IRA members wanted information and practical ideas for dealing with local and regional concerns. A major concern of many Texas educators is the teaching of reading to Spanish speaking children. There are approximately six million non-English speaking school age children in the United States. More than eighty percent of these speak Spanish as their first language. Twenty-five percent of the total Texas population, under fifteen years of age, is Spanish speaking. A few of these children have an adequate command of both English and Spanish languages, but many do not have a functional command of English. The question of how our schools can maximize the reading development of the Spanish speaking pupil is an involved issue. Consideration of this question brought to mind the interests of Dr. Donald Critchlow and the contributions he has made to the education of Spanish speaking pupils in Texas. Dr. Critchlow accepted both the chairmanship of the new committee and the responsibility for developing a publication on reading and the Spanish speaking child. This volume is the result of the dedicated effort of that informed committee. The committee is planning other efforts which will further contribute to the improvement of reading instruction for Spanish speaking pupils.

The Texas State Council of the International Reading Association expresses appreciation to the committee for this first State Council publication.

Jimmye Dobbs Hays, President
Texas State Council of the
International Reading Association
1974-75

Introductory Note

The intent of this volume is to present considerations for the assistance of all who are concerned with teaching reading to children whose first language is Spanish. Serious thought to the areas presented should result in more effective provisions in classrooms for the reading and learning needs of a significantly large number of children.

Reflecting the belief that the needs of the Spanish speaking child is of concern to all in the field of education, Jimmye Dobbs Hays, President of the Texas State Council of the International Reading Association, with approval of the Executive Board, appointed the Committee and charged it with the responsibility of preparing a publication which would contribute to the improvement of reading instruction for the Spanish speaking child. The Committee focused on five specific areas of concern to the administrator, supervisor and teacher. It is hoped that those who use the publication will find it helpful to them and that it will thus, in turn, benefit the children they teach. The Committee will then have met the charge given it by Mrs. Hays.

Appreciation is expressed to the individual writers and to the readers, Professors Drew Tinsley and Janet Fair of Texas A & I University at Laredo, who gave so generously of their time and talents. A special thanks to Mrs. Hays and the Executive Board who rendered support and encouragement for the development of this publication.

Donald E. Critchlow, Editor

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Authors

Arturo Luis Gutierrez, Ph.D.
Director, Division of Bilingual Education
Texas Education Agency, Austin, Texas

Donald E. Critchlow, Ph.D.
Professor of Education and Psychology
Director of the Reading Learning Clinic
Texas A & I University at Laredo

Manuel T. Pacheco, Ph.D.
Dean of the University
Professor of Education
Texas A & I University at Laredo

David A. Dillon, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate, University of Texas at Austin
Consultant, English Language Arts Section
Division of Curriculum Development
Texas Education Agency, Austin, Texas

Eduardo M. Hinojosa, M.S.
Ph.D. Candidate, University of Texas at Austin
Instructor
Texas A & I University at Laredo

CHAPTER I

BILINGUAL EDUCATION: READING THROUGH TWO LANGUAGES

Arturo Luis Gutierrez, Ph.D.

Scarcely more than five years ago on September 23, 1969, the U. S. Commissioner of Education James E. Allen, Jr , in a speech to the National Association of School Boards of Education in Los Angeles proclaimed his belief that we should immediately set for ourselves the goal of assuring that by the end of this decade the right to read shall be a reality to all–that no one shall leave our schools without the skill and the desire necessary to read to the full limits of his capability. With these words he launched a decade of effort dedicated to the proposition that every child has the capability of learning to read and that reading is essential to the child's success as an individual.

No one can disagree that reading serves as the foundation for other educational activities–that the person who succeeds is the person who masters the skills of reading and develops, in the process, the desire to read. And for this reason, there remains cause for much concern when we review current statistics; particularly, as they apply to children whose language is one other than English.

In Texas, a multilingual, multicultural State, Mexican Americans constitute the largest linguistic and cultural minority in the State. A recent survey by the Texas Education Agency indicated that there were approximately 625,000 Spanish surnamed children in Texas public schools. This constituted approximately 23% of the total school population. More importantly, though, a survey of bilingual education needs based on teacher opinion conducted in 1973-74 by public schools in Texas indicated that there were over 243,000 children in grades K-12 who had Spanish as a primary language and who were limited in their ability to speak and understand English; thus, they had difficulty performing ordinary classwork in English. In addition, there were 7,000 children of limited English speaking ability who spoke one of fifty other languages as a primary language.

The U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (1971) reported that nearly ¾ of the Mexican American eighth graders in the Texas survey area were reading below average and nearly ½ of these were reading two or more years below grade level. Concomitantly, the Commission reported:

> For Mexican Americans, the situation appears to improve between grades 8 and 12. It must be remembered, however, that in Texas nearly 50 percent of this group has dropped out of school before reaching the 12th grade. Thus, the improvement in reading achievement is an illusion. Nevertheless, two-thirds of the Mexican Americans who remain in school through the 12th grade are deficient in their reading ability by the time they are ready to graduate from high school and about 44 percent suffer severe reading retardation.

The result of the Sixth Grade Criterion – Referenced Test on forty-eight reading objectives which was sponsored by the Texas Education Agency in 1974 indicated that in general, the "Other" classification, which is primarily Anglo, performed better than Mexican Americans, who in turn performed better than Black pupils. Indeed, it appears that generally speaking, reading programs have failed to meet the needs of all pupils.

Theodore Andersson (1965) wrote, "Every professional group needs periodically to pause, to take stock, to focus anew, and to make a fresh start." Both the Texas Legislature and the State Board of Education have done just that. By focusing attention on bilingual/multicultural education, the profession has been given the opportunity to perceive the importance of solving serious educational problems for those children whose primary language is one other than English. Recognizing that there are large numbers of children in the public schools who are, in fact, of limited English speaking ability, bilingual/multicultural education has been authorized as a full-time instructional program by the Texas Legislature (Texas Education Code, 1974) which had been recognized as an educational priority for the State of Texas by the State Board of Education in 1973.

Bilingual legislation enacted by the 63rd Texas Legislature (Texas Education Code, 1974) requires the implementation of bilingual education programs beginning at the first grade in September, 1974 in any district which had 20 or more children of limited English speaking ability at any grade level and in any language classification during the previous scholastic year. The legislation also permits districts with less than 20 children to implement programs. In this context, bilingual/multicultural education is an educational approach which entails the use of two languages for instruction, one of which is English, in all or part of the curriculum. Inherent in the program is the development of pride in the cultures and histories associated with the two languages and the development and maintenance of the child's self-esteem. In addition, the primary goal of bilingual/multicultural education

is the successful achievement by the student of the goals for public school education.

A program of bilingual education is based on the premise that a child begins where he is and builds upon those skills and competencies that he brings to school. Those who know the nature of language and how it is acquired agree that, normally, by the fourth year of life a child has mastered the basic sound patterns and structures of his language. Of all the skills and competencies needed for social life which a child acquires in the first few years of life, competence in language is one of the most crucial. As Bernard Spolsky (1972) stated, "When a six year old child comes to school he brings with him as a result of a huge investment of time and effort in language learning a high level of mastery of at least one variety of language." By the time he arrives at school, a normal child is able to understand most of what is said to him and can make himself understood by those who speak the same language that he does. When the language of the school and the language of the home are of the same variety, there is no difficulty in the transition, from home to school; but, unfortunately for a great number of children the situation is quite different.

In discussing the language education of minority children, Spolsky (1972) stated:

> For them, starting school means starting to learn a new language. The five or six years they have so far spent in acquiring competence in their home language seem wasted when they find their teachers, their school books, or their fellow pupils using a different language. For them, there is a language barrier, established by the school itself, that blocks their learning, discourages their efforts, and reduces their chances of success in the educational system. Learning in school depends on interaction – interaction of the pupil with his teachers, with his books, with his peers – and all these interactions are mediated by language. School is not just a place that teaches language; most of its teaching takes place through language, and most of its learning depends on a pupil's ability to understand what his teacher says and what is in his books. Without communication between teachers and pupils, there is little chance of effective education.

Few will deny that many children bring certain disadvantages from home. Whatever their inherent capacity may be, their environment may seriously hamper their opportunities for development. However, when, in addition, the schools fail to recognize and make use of the child's language, many more disadvantaged children are created.

There is an old myth that children of the lower socioeconomic classes

speak no language—are non verbal—or that they speak an inferior or substandard dialect. Emphasis should be place on the fact that children learn the variety of language to which they have been exposed in their environments and which meet their needs for social life. If the language variety of the school is different from that which the child brings, the responsibility of the school, then, is to accept what the child brings, and to develop effective approaches, methods, and techniques, so that children can acquire other varieties of language which are appropriate to a variety of situations. However, until the situation is recognized and understood, little can be done to provide equitable educational opportunities for all children. Fortunately, many public schools in Texas are moving in this direction.

An axiom of bilingual/multicultural education is that children learn to read best through their native language. Therefore, as part of a bilingual education program, schools must provide for the sequential development of the child's native language—listening, speaking, reading and writing, in that order—while simultaneously introducing English language skills. Because of the primacy of speech, the initial emphasis is on the development of the aural-oral skills; however, as reading and writing are introduced the focus may shift to the new skills, without totally deemphasizing the listening and speaking.

The Spanish language has a high degree of constancy in its relationship between spoken and printed symbols. The use of Spanish for instruction, therefore, provides native speakers of the language with a vehicle for learning to decode earlier and faster. Experience has shown that most kindergarten children whose native language is Spanish and who receive instruction in the development of Spanish language skills can and do learn to decode Spanish words by the end of the kindergarten year. The simultaneous development of English aural-oral skills through a planned approach forms the basis for the introduction of reading and writing skills in English at a later point in time. The decoding skills learned in Spanish will establish a firm base for the Spanish speaking child and will transfer to the development of reading and writing skills in English without loss of time and energy.

Perhaps Abrahams and Troike (1972) best state the case for Bilingual Education: Reading Through Two Languages, when they wrote:

> Most school districts have yet to discover that bilingualism can be a tool. It can be a tool—indeed the most important tool—with which to educate and motivate the Mexican American child. It can be the means by which he achieves an affirmative self-concept—by which he comes to know who and what he is, takes pride in his heritage and culture, and develops a sense of his own worth. It can be an invaluable asset to him as an adult, economically, intellectually and socially.
>
> One of the proofs of the validity of this approach, it seems to us, is the fact that children born and re-

ceiving their early schooling in Mexico or some other Spanish speaking country generally do better in our schools than Mexican Americans born here.

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CHAPTER II

TEACHING ALL CHILDREN TO READ

Donald E. Critchlow, Ph.D.

A thoughtful discussion of learning to read and to write and the teaching of such skills to children must include some consideration of the origins and growth of language and philosophical differences between schools in the United States and in other nations. Kottmeyer (1974) has provided a fairly detailed description of both language and philosophical differences together with recommendations for teaching alphabetic principles of English. His work serves as a resource for serious attention to the improvement of instruction for all children entrusted to the school.

Learning to read and to write is a comparatively easier task when the language remains consistent in the sound-symbol relationship and adheres to alphabetic principles. The sound-symbol relationships and alphabetic principles do remain consistent in Spanish, French, Portuguese, Italian and Romanian but are more inconsistent in English. These consistencies in the Romance languages are traceable back to the Latin, to the Italic languages and the Greek dialects, and even further to the Egyptian hieroglyphics. Although English too, can be traced back to the Egyptian hieroglyphics, the present English used and taught in the American school was originally borrowed to fit the phonemes of the Semitic dialects, adapted to fit the phonemes of a Germanic language which had been modified from Anglo-Saxon. Further modifications appeared from Chaucer to Shakespeare and the addition of thousands of words taken from other languages, with differing spelling patterns, comprise current English in the United States. To better understand the many problems of teaching and learning which result from the multimodification of alphabetic principles, the teacher should be familiar with the English phonemes and the degree of inconsistency which exists in the sound-symbol relationships being taught to children and especially when many of these children have already learned a language that adheres to a sound-symbol relationship and is more amenable to alphabetic principles, such as Spanish. In addition, it is necessary to consider that the syntactical

structure of English differs from the syntactical structure of Spanish providing an additional problem for the child learning either language as a second language.

The American school system has embraced the premise of respectable secondary school book learning for all children. All other nations seem to have considered this premise both naive and unrealistic. Hence, the American schools have undertaken a more formidable task, that of teaching decoding skills throughout the elementary grades. Most other nations are able to dispose of this task in a matter of weeks or a few months. English spellings, however, are far more irregular than those of Latin-based languages and other Germanic languages. A visit to a European school would reveal pupils who become fluent decoders in a very brief time. Further, it would be found that spelling does not normally appear in their curricula. The enormous size of the English vocabulary exceeds that of other languages and creates an additional problem for book learning.

European schools have generally maintained that only a relatively small percentage of children are endowed with ability for higher levels of cognitive activity required beyond the rudimentary skills taught in the primary grades. However, in the United States the idea that hard work, determination and good teaching will bring all children to the higher levels is commonly accepted.

Very few citizens will deny the existence of differences in intelligence and most publicly proclaim themselves and their children to be "just average folks". But, when they encounter the school these same citizens display a great dissatisfaction if their children do not achieve above the average in book learning. Whatever position one may take toward intelligence and intelligence testing as measuring an inherited or an environmentally learned ability, tests do predict with a high degree of accuracy the success of children in book learning. They are probably more predictable than the subjective opinions of European schools who decide on the academic and career destinies of their children early in the elementary school. It is obvious that the American school is an arm of a democratic society, reflecting the thought of that society, and is committed to producing students who are able to perform satisfactorily in book learning. But, these same students persistently distribute themselves according to the bell curve, ranging from highly competent to gross incompetence. Under these circumstances, a major task of the American school should be to examine its philosophical stance and to review carefully the nature of man and the nature of learning. In addition, institutions which prepare teachers must also examine their orientation to teacher preparation.

Basic to any understanding of how and why children learn is the psychological premise of individual differences. It is difficult to imagine educational literature that does not give consideration to this concept and the many curricular modifications that have been developed specifically to allow for individual differences. Consider such practices as ungraded classes, multi-level reading materials, grouping within the classroom and the introduction of special education services to provide for children at differing levels of learning. Kirk (1972) expands on this concept and discusses the term inter-individual

differences to indicate that any one child is significantly different from any other child. The fundamental idea of testing children is to determine the relative abilities or achievements as compared with other children, or the inter-individual differences which exist. An even more significant consideration is added with the discussion of intra-individual differences. Herein, is the identification of the abilities or achievement of an individual child as compared with his own disabilities or lags in achievement. This latter meaning of individual difference is the essential one to be considered in planning instructional programs for more effective learning. Kirk goes on to say that every teacher must organize the instructional program of any given classroom to provide for three grades above or below the grade to which the child is assigned. A cursory review of the literature related to learning and teaching reveals an emphasis on the inter-individual differences within the classroom but little on the intra-individual differences within the individual child. Perhaps herein lies the reason for frustration on the part of many teachers, psychologists, and administrators in coping with the reading problems. According to Kaluger and Kolson (1969) these problems are found in approximately fifteen percent of all school children. Statistics taken from the U. S. Office of Education Reading Seminars Pamphlet (1971) relating to reading failures, are no less discouraging:

> Over 8 million school-age children are not learning to read adequately.
>
> Sixteen percent of the enrollment in grades 1 through 12 require special instruction in reading.
>
> In most large city school systems. . .at least half the students are unable to read well enough to handle their assignments.

Such alarming figures suggest that the instructional strategy should be to attack the problem with renewed vigor. Research findings reported by Guszak (1972) clearly indicate that children can make significant gains in achievement when taught by highly skilled teachers.

Volumes have been written by authorities in the field of education, psychology, medicine and allied fields on the causes of reading failures. While it may be helpful to understand the causes of the problem the classroom teacher should remember that evidence being gathered by the Behavorists and Field Psychologists indicate that behavior can be modified if the instructional program is designed to meet the specific needs of the child. The classroom teacher's primary concern should be to work with the behavior of the child rather than to worry too much about causes which she all too often can do little about. Learning problems can never be attributed to a single cause. They are usually complex and usually interrelated. No attempt will be made here to present an extremely complicated investigation of causation. Only those factors which can be investigated by the classroom teacher will be presented. If

further evaluation is needed, the teacher should seek assistance from such resource personnel as are available.

An adequate linguistic system and the need to develop a conceptual system which the linguistic system represents are both necessary for adequate and continuous intellectual development. Children entering the schools are not devoid of either a conceptual system or a linguistic system through which further intellectual development may take place, but children do enter the school at various stages of development in both systems. The inability to communicate in the language of the school does not indicate the absence of either a linguistic system or a conceptual system. In teaching Spanish speaking children the first responsibility is to determine the language level and the syntactical pattern of the child in both English and Spanish. Such tests as the Dos Amigos Verbal Language Scales (1974) will identify the dominant language of the child, reveal the comparative development of the child's English and Spanish, and yield the level at which the child's spoken language development best qualifies him to function. Clinical studies reveal that children who score at or below the mean in both English and Spanish reveal conceptual weaknesses when further tested with the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. However, the Dos Amigos Verbal Language Scales was not designed to identify the syntactical pattern of the child. This can probably best be done through informal measures. One means of determining the syntactical pattern is to record such activities as "Show and Tell" and simply identify the child's pattern. If the child's dominant language is Spanish the teacher has two alternatives (1) Begin reading instruction in Spanish and begin to build the child's oral English language (2) Forget about beginning reading instruction in English until the English oral language system is sufficiently established for the child to get meaning from the printed symbols. It should be remembered that reading is two steps removed from experience. This means that the printed word is a symbol for an oral word, which, in turn is a symbol for an experience. To a child shown the printed symbol d-o-g representing the spoken symbol /dog/ the total experience he has had with a dog is represented. It is not enough for the child to decode the printed symbol and utter the spoken symbol /dog/. He must be able to go another step and bring forth from his memory the experiences he has had with a dog. Included in this recall will be all of the emotional aspects associated with experiences of dog. Was it fun or was it an unpleasant memory which might best be forgotten? Emotional feelings are developed within the child from his first learnings and how the school reacts to or interacts with the child in the affective domain will effect what and how he learns. Cohen (1969) discusses learning readiness as a condition necessary before the child engages in such activities as reading readiness. He cites self control and the ability to conform to the school routine as absolute essentials. Further, he cites visual motor and visual perceptual development and language-concept development as factors of learning readiness and not reading readiness. Thus, when some teachers recommend further reading readiness the child may actually be in need of learning readiness. These factors must be given basic consideration before beginning reading instruction.

How does the teacher know when the child is ready for beginning reading instruction? One suggestion might be for the teacher to teach the child some words and if he learns them with a sufficient retention factor he is ready to read. This sounds reasonable but as a rule of thumb the teacher should determine whether the child:

(a) Has an interest in stories and printed symbols
(b) Has the ability to tell a story from memory and in a sequential order
(c) Is able to visually discriminate between different letters and words
(d) Has auditory discrimination of sounds in words
(e) Has a basic vocabulary adequate for the instructional materials used in the classroom
(f) Has a knowledge of the letters of the alphabet

The first five are essential and lead into a knowledge of the letters of the alphabet. Methodology must fit the developmental stage of the child. For the classroom teacher the problem is more often what to teach and less often how to teach.

Most young children do not recognize words by their total shape, but rather, search out one or two letters to identify a word. The ability of the child to notice the /b/ sound in ball and boy and to discriminate separate sounds at the beginning, middle, and end of the spoken word is adequate for beginning reading instruction. Phonic programs will usually be unsuccessful unless children are thoroughly trained in auditory discrimination of sounds. The ability to identify sounds in general, such as differences in bell sounds and automobile horns, and the ability to pronounce words spoken by adults appear to be functionally unrelated to success in beginning reading. As a word of caution the teacher should not teach sounds in isolation but always within the context of a word which is a part of the child's oral-aural experience. Teaching of sounds in isolation presents many problems to the child as he attempts blending tactics because many consonant sounds cannot be uttered without appending a vowel sound which bewilders the child attempting to relate the distorted and isolated utterances.

The classroom teacher must be knowledgeable in the content of reading and in the methodology for coping with the many and varied reading problems that will be encountered. Durkin (1974) reports that many practices now carried on in classrooms include the use of materials that are irrelevant, incorrect or unrelated to what the children need to learn.

What about the children who are classified as dyslexic, learning diabilities, or mentally retarded? These children can learn to read too. The same basic considerations given here are applicable to all children, whether he is a Spanish speaking child learning to read and write English or an English speaking child learning to read and write Spanish. The teacher must be equipped to change teaching styles according to the learning needs of the child. She must be will-

ing to adjust her techniques to provide for the weaknesses and strengths of the individual and must not expect the child to adjust to her teaching techniques. The research evidence indicates that no one particular method of teaching reading is adequate for all children. Often these findings are interpreted to mean the method used in any one classroom is as good as any of the others. The fallacy of such thought is obvious. Its true meaning is simply that within each classroom there must be a variety of methods designed and implemented according to the particular needs of individual children within that classroom. Perhaps the Broadway Musical, The King and I, expresses two related conditions applicable to teaching and reading: understanding and mutual affection or respect, "getting to know you, getting to know all about you, getting to like you, getting to hope you like me too". The atmosphere that prevails in the classroom has a significant effect on the progress made by children learning to read and teachers teaching all children to read.

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CHAPTER III

LINGUISTIC UNDERSTANDINGS FOR THE TEACHER OF SPANISH SPEAKING CHILDREN

Manuel T. Pacheco, Ph.D.

The teaching of reading is unquestionably one of the most important tasks of our schools. It is obviously not the only task but is a necessary part of and a prerequisite to what is regarded as a complete education. In an age of mass compulsory education, we have undertaken to teach every child to read regardless of any handicaps that he might have. His success in learning to read eventually becomes the yardstick by which he judges what goes on in school and by which he is often judged by his parents and the general public.

Because language is a primary vehicle for learning, both before the reading skills are acquired and after, a child's facility in language affects his acquisition of knowledge, his subsequent role in society and his ability to take advantage of career opportunities.

Reading programs today are being built on principles of psychology, child growth and development, physiology, and, to some extent, sociology, but not on any real, systematic knowledge of language. If this is generally true, it is even more true in and more important for teaching reading to the bilingual or non-English dominant child. For, if we can cite the generally accepted premise that reading is the recognition of and obtaining meaning from printed symbols for the oral language one has, then it is imperative that teachers have some elementary knowledge about the language children have or are going to acquire when they arrive at school.

Therefore, this chapter will address itself to those linguistic understandings that a teacher of Spanish-English speaking children must have in order to more effectively organize learning experiences for those children.

Many of us think of language primarily in terms of words rather than as an integrated system of sounds, grammar, and vocabulary. Since most of us learned the structures of our language at such an early age, we are largely un-

aware of the highly complex form of symbolic activity which takes place in organizing and communicating meaning and the formal relationships which are expressed through a set of vocal signals.

When a child first attends school, he brings with him a unique set of linguistic experiences and therefore speaks a slightly different form of a language. Those with whom he communicates also speak a slightly different form of the language but in its composite, the form of language used is very similarly structured and implemented. These similar language features can be grouped and called a dialect. A collection of similar dialects form a language. It is generally accepted that a dialect, then, is any distinctively differentiated variety of a language and therefore, that all languages have dialects. It is important to note that everyone speaks a dialect and that there is no such thing as a "pure" form of a language. In this respect, then, the language one uses cannot be classified as being either "good" or "bad". At best it can be classified as "standard" or "nonstandard".

The child acquires the basic language forms of those around him very early in his life so that by the time he attends school he has mastered the basic language system well enough to communicate his physical, emotional and social needs adequately within his language community. The communication system he has acquired may or may not be a standard dialect of the language. Regardless of this, it serves him well and is an intimate part of his being.

In the process of first language learning, the basic sound and grammatical structures of the home language become engrained in the learner. As he uses and practices his home language, he learns to hear and produce all sounds in terms of the linguistic system he is acquiring and all extraneous sounds, such as the sounds of another language, are classified in terms of what the learner already knows and produces. We have all had the experience of listening to a non-native speaker of English (or Spanish) attempting to speak the language with a noticeable "accent". This difference is the result of that person's using the sound system of his native language for the second language. Spanish speakers, for example, commonly hear and produce both cheap and chip as cheap. The difficulty is not that they are inherently unable to hear or produce the differences, but rather that they have been conditioned not to because of previous experience in their native language.

Comparable problems occur in grammar and vocabulary, all of which are the direct result of the tendency to superimpose native language characteristics or structures on the second language. All of these problems of perception and implementation which arise from native language habits of the speaker are called interference.

In order to recognize and deal effectively with these problems in the classroom, the teacher in a bilingual classroom must know the differences and similarities of the two languages and incorporate these specific interference problems in the teaching strategies to be used, in the preparation of materials and in the organization of the curriculum itself.

Every language uses a limited number of sounds to distinguish words from each other. In order to understand the pronunciation characteristics of children in bilingual classrooms, the teacher needs to understand how speech sounds are made and the differences between the language sound systems being used and be able to relate these to dialectal and developmental aspects of the two languages.

Although it is beyond the scope of this paper to explain the Spanish and English Sound systems in great detail, a few characteristics of speech sound production and the identification of the sound classes will help to give some basic understandings which a classroom teacher should have.

First, a sound can be characterized according to how it is articulated. It may be a stop in which the sounds are produced by a complete closing of the air passage through the mouth such as in the initial sound in pit, car, tip, boy, dill and good and the final sound in mob, top, sock, mod, putt, mug.

The sound may be a fricative which is produced by a narrowing causing friction in the mouth but not completely deterring the passage of air such as in the initial sound in fight, thing, this, sill, shell, hip, zebra, veer and the final sound in wife, both, sieve, wish, has, rouge, loathe, vice.

The sound may be an affricate which is produced by a complete closing of the air passage as in a stop and released with a friction sound as in a fricative. The initial and final sounds of church and judge illustrate such sounds.

Another category of sounds is the resonants which are produced without friction as in wear, rise, yes, lilly. In nasals which is a special class of resonants, the air is allowed to pass through the nasal cavity as in name, mane, sing.

A final way to characterize a sound with respect to manner of articulation is whether the vocal chords vibrate or not during the production of the sound. Sounds produced while the vocal chords vibrate are called voiced sounds. Of the stops identified above boy, dill, and good begin with voicing while mob, mod, mug end with voicing. In actuality all of the sounds in the examples given above are voiced while the initial and final stop sounds in the following words are unvoiced: tip, top, pit, putt.

Finally, sounds can be characterized as to point of articulation. Speech sounds may involve the lips, the teeth, the alveolar ridge, the palate, the velum, the tongue and the larynx.

Taking into account the preceding information, it is possible to construct the following charts which show the Spanish and English Consonant systems and how the underlined sounds are articulated.

ENGLISH

		Lips	Lips & Teeth	Teeth	Alveolar Ridge	Palate	Velum
Stops	VL	/p/ pit			/t/ Ted		/k/ come
	Vd	/b/ bit			/d/ dead		/g/ gum
Fricatives	VL		/f/ fairy	/θ/ thigh	/s/ sip	/š/ sure	
	Vd		/v/ very	/ð/ thy	/z/ zip	/ž/ azure	
Affricates	VL					/č/ church	
	Vd					/ǰ/ judge	
Resonants	Vd	/w/ with			/r/ read /l/ leave	/y/ yes	
Nasals	Vd	/m/ mean			/n/ sin		/ŋ/ sing

Vowels sounds can be similarly classified according to where they are produced in the mouth. However, for present purposes we will identify the vowel sounds in both languages in order to have a vowel inventory of both languages.

Spanish has five distinct vowel sounds which appear in the following words: /a/-hasta, /E/-este, /o/-otro, /u/-uva, /i/-listo.

Comparatively speaking the English vowel system is much more complex in that there is a minimum of ten separate vowel sounds: /iy/-beet, /I/-bit, /ey/-bait, /E/-bet, /ae/-bat, /uw/-boot, /U/-bull, /ow/-boat, /ɔ/-bought, /ə/-but.

SPANISH

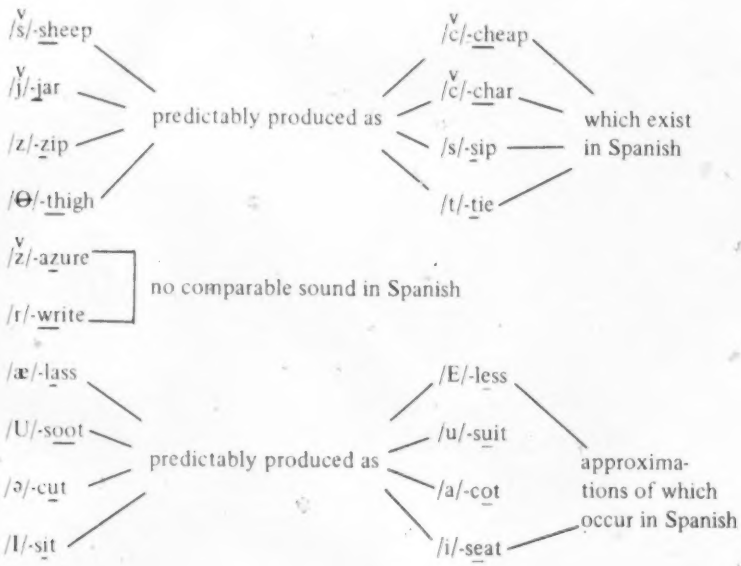
		Lips	Lips & Teeth	Teeth	Alveolar Ridge	Palate	Velum
Stops	Vl	/p/ pero			/t/ todo		/k/ queso
	Vd	/b/ vaca burro			[d] dedo		[g] guerra gato
Fricatives	VL		/f/ fievre		/s/ soda		/j/ jabon
	Vd	/ƀ/ uva		[đ] dedo			[g] agua
Affricates	VL					/č/ leche	
	Vd						
Resonants							
	Vd	/w/ hueso			/l/ lavo	/y/ hielo	
Nasals					/n/ niño	/ñ/ niño	[ŋ] nunca
	Vd	/m/ mano					
Vibrants	Vd				/r/ caro		
Trill					/r/ carro roto		

From such information it is possible to determine elementary similarities and differences between the two language sound systems. Such information is critical for the classroom teacher when attempting to construct language learning and reading activities for either or both languages because of the phenomenon of language interference.

In comparing the two sound systems we find that the consonant sounds /ǰ/ as in judge, /š/ as in sure, /z/ as in zero, /Θ/ as in think, /v/ as in very, /ž/ as in pleasure, /r/ as in red do not exist in Spanish. Similarly /I/ as in bit, /U/ as book, /æ/ as in rat, /ə/ as in cut, /ow/ as in open occur in English but not in Spanish. Other sounds exist in English whose Spanish approximation is acceptable as substitutes for some of the English vowel sounds. For example /i/ in hijo is acceptable as in even, /E/ as in este is acceptable in words such as let or elephant, /u/ as in uva is acceptable in boot and suit.

Those English sounds for which there is not a suitable approximation in Spanish can be expected to present problems for the Spanish speaker learning English. In summary, the problem sounds in English can be expected to be produced in terms of the closest sound in Spanish as follows:

English sound –



Furthermore, certain sounds which occur in both languages may not be allowed in the same position in Spanish as in English and may trigger changes in meaning. For example the sound [ð] as in thy occurs in Spanish but only between vowels or in final position as in dedo and usted while the sound [d] as in die occurs in Spanish initially and after m or n as in dedo or donde. In English these two sounds occur in any position and furthermore signal a difference in meaning such as /d/ in die and /ð/ in thy.

Although the grammar of one language is different from any other, there are many more similarities than differences between Spanish and English. Contrasting grammatical features, however, can help to predict language problems the second language learner may have in acquiring a second language.

The contrast between Es un niño and He is a boy can help to explain why some Spanish speakers produce sentences such as Is a man which follows the Spanish sentence pattern in which the pronoun is included in the verb. Similarly Is the door closed? would be produced as Is closed the door because of the construction Esta cerrada la puerta? in which the order of words is different. A word for word translation rather than a knowledge of the basic structures of the two languages accounts for non-standard structures that sometimes occur.

Articles can present another difficulty for speakers of Spanish since the indefinite article is omitted in certain situations such as before nouns denoting occupation as in That woman is teacher or He is butcher.

The third language system to consider is vocabulary or the lexicon which includes the meaning or cultural referents for a language. Because an individual's vocabulary reflects in part his experiences, care must be taken that those experiences are taken into account upon teaching him a second language. Furthermore, because words have different ranges of meaning, apparent meaning equivalents of words between languages are often misleading. For example foot in English and pie in Spanish are only partially synonymous since pie is used for the foot of a human or the base or foot of something inaminate while pata is used for the foot or leg of an animal or the leg of a table or chair. Other similar problems occur with back and neck which can be lomo or espalda and pescuezo or cuello respectively depending on whether the referent is human or not. These facts reflect the cultural dimension of words.

Speakers of each language view reality according to the cultural and psychological norms to which they have been exposed which allows perceptions to be organized in culturally meaningful ways. Learning a second language requires learning an additional cultural framework and new ways of communicating linguistically to another cultural group.

The process of reading can be thought of as the chain of steps listed below.

Visual symbol → decode → sound sequence →

decode → morpheme (meaning-bearing units in words)

decode → "meaning" referent

In this process the reader goes from (1) the written form to (2) the speech form which the written form represents to (3) the meaning in the world of experience. In silent reading, it is generally recognized that speech production is suppressed and a "short-cut" is developed from speech formation to linguistic decoding.

In the initial stages of reading, however, the speech of the child plays a major role in that visual symbols must be related to auditory and vocal symbols which the child possesses. For that reason, children must have auditory-oral control of the material he is going to try to read as well as having proper understanding of the content so that the focus can be on the process of reading as a thinking process rather than strictly on the decoding process.

Mastery of the sound system is necessary for reading so that the visual memory load is not overburdened. A child who cannot hear or produce the difference between cheap and sheep, heat and hit, soot and suit, etc. must depend on his visual memory to know how the different perceived homonyms are spelled.

Because of the light it sheds on the nature of language, the language acquisition process, and bilingualism, linguistics can provide valuable insights and suggestions for second language teaching. Only a few of these have been identified here but what has been presented indicates that teachers of bilingual students need to have some basic knowledge of linguistics and the comparative aspects of Spanish and English.

If we are successful in developing two effective systems of communication in our students, we have in effect doubled his potential for functioning successfully in two social contexts. If we are not successful in this and the student's native language is not the dominant one in the community and is not the medium of education and commerce, his economic and social advancement may be severely hampered.

It must be emphasized that the teacher must recognize, accept, and use the child's first language in teaching so that the previous learnings of the child can be built upon and not lost. At the same time, a second language acquisition program built upon linguistic information about the two languages and how they influence each other must be begun. In this manner, the achievement of successful bilingualism in our students can be fostered with full knowledge that it is being done in a linguistically, educationally and philosophically justifiable manner.

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CHAPTER IV

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR ORAL LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

David Dillon, M.A.

Language studies over the past several decades have focused attention on the fact that reading success, in any language, depends to a great extent on the reader's oral proficiency in a particular language. In other words, the literate skills of reading and writing are based on the corresponding oral skills of listening and speaking. Generally, children will not produce any utterances which they would not be able to understand and it is difficult for children to read any passage which they could not at least comprehend orally.

Traditionally, the first two Rs have received primary concern in the Language Arts curriculum. Recently, however, because of the emphasis on the interrelationship between oral and literate language ability, listening and speaking skills have been emphasized in order to improve the quality and effectiveness of reading instruction and learning in the classroom. For Spanish speaking children, the development of good oral proficiency in English is a necessary prerequisite for instruction in English reading. Otherwise, their reading ability in English will not reach its full potential and they will not learn English well by reading it. In like manner, if the school program also includes reading in Spanish for Spanish speaking children, a continuous program of oral language development in Spanish should be a part of the Spanish Language Arts curriculum.

If oral language development should be part of any language skills curriculum, how can it best be implemented? What specific skills and objectives should a teacher have in mind? What is the most appropriate instructional approach for developing oral language skills? Are differences in approach more necessary for oral language instruction in a second language than in a first language?

Specific skills and the appropriate sequence in which they should be developed are somewhat more difficult to define for oral language than for reading and writing since less is actually known about oral language, how it

is developed, and how it is used. A cursory glance at oral language and its components reveals its complexity. Various comprehension skills must be developed, ranging from the recall of specific facts heard to critical listening skills. These listening skills are based, of course, on a receptive knowledge of the phonology, syntax, and semantics of a language. Another concern is productive competence in the phonology, syntax, and semantics of a language. Vocabulary development is closely tied to a speaker's concept development. In addition, a speaker of a language must become familiar with the sociolinguistic variations of speech, such as the various ways to greet or take leave of someone, or appropriate ways to disagree with another. This picture is truly a complex one. No wonder it is so difficult to list and sequence all the various oral language skills.

Despite this difficulty, the oral language ability of students can be improved and enriched in the classroom. General goals and objectives can be established to guide instruction in oral language. Besides competence in the basic elements of a language, there are a great many practical situations in which students will need to be able to perform well in order to function as contributing members of society. Some of these situations include: group discussions, conversing, talking on the telephone, making announcements, introducing people, interviewing, reporting, explaining, and conducting business meetings. Creative oral expression can serve well as one of the goals of an oral language program to develop a child's creativity and to serve as an aid in such practical oral language situations, as persuasion, where elements of creativity are helpful. An additional goal which helps to overcome the difficulty encountered in specifying skills for oral language development is teaching children to become keen observers of language and the behaviors which accompany it. If children become good observers of language, whether it is their native language or a second language, they will be able to learn many of the skills which we have not been able to specify for teaching purposes.

A great deal of research has been undertaken in recent years in early childhood language acquisition. While most of the results have been derived from studies of preschool children, they still provide a view of the process of language acquisition and language learning in human beings and some implications for classroom instruction in oral language. The ability to acquire language is an inherent ability, just as natural to all people as physical growth. It is closely tied to children's cognitive growth which in turn is determined by both natural and environmental influences. The language acquisition process is systematic. Even at the earliest stages of language development, children do not imitate speech or combine words randomly. Yet, the process is a creative one too. Children experiment, on a trial-and-error basis, with what they know and test it in their speech community, often producing utterances which they have not heard before. Further language data which they receive is used to constantly revise their language system. This process continues until their language system approximates the adult norm of their speech community. During this process, children's comprehension ability remains superior to their ability to produce speech.

If the nature of the language acquisition process is as research indicates, what are some implications for classroom instruction in the development of oral language? First, if the classroom is to be a place where children's oral language ability, both receptive and expressive, will be improved, then children must be given the opportunity to listen and to speak a good deal in the classroom, not just to the teacher but also to each other. Children must be permitted to practice and experiment with the new oral skills in which they are being instructed and there are many opportunities to accomplish this goal in a guided manner in the classroom.

The atmosphere established in the classroom for language learning should be free and non-threatening since language acquisition is a creative, trial-and-error process. Children will naturally attempt to put together elements of language in ways that are new for them or use various elements of language in new situations. These attempts will often result in inappropriate usage. However, these "errors" are important in the language learning process for children. The teacher can use this information to plan instruction in various aspects of language for individual children. Only in a classroom atmosphere where these attempts to use language are encouraged and accepted will children continue this natural tendency, thereby providing themselves with a great deal of practice in language and their teacher with much information about their language ability.

When children acquire language naturally, their basic purpose in doing so is to communicate with other people within their environment, either to express their own feelings and desires or to understand what someone else is telling them. In so far as possible, the learning of a language for communicative purposes should be the emphasis placed on language learning in the classroom. It is difficult to keep children's motivation high to learn language for its own sake. Yet, if children can relate language learning to their basic needs, to express themselves more effectively to others and to comprehend others more precisely, then motivation is usually high. Very many real communicative settings present themselves in the classroom and the community every day. The teacher must watch for them and use them. For those situations which are not readily available in everyday life, many contrived communicative settings may be established in the classroom.

For example, if a teacher's instructional objective for a child or a group of children is ability to use the telephone to request such specific information as times, places or dates the instructional strategies used may be of the following general nature. Depending on the age and background of the students, the teacher may need to provide instruction for them to: decide what information is needed, know where to find it, be ready to write it down if necessary, know how to express themselves clearly and learn how to use a telephone. If appropriate, the teacher, or another student, may model the entire procedure. Next, the children may practice with each other using sample information. The use of a working model of a telephone at this point would be very helpful. The culminating activity would involve having each child actually telephone to obtain information which is actually needed by him or her, by the teacher, or by the entire class, such as bus departure times, if the class is going on a bus trip,

or starting times for a movie, if the student is going to see it. Evaluation can be provided at any or all stages of this procedure by the teacher, by other students, or by both together, if it is appropriate.

A further variation of the above activity could focus on some of the sociolinguistic variations of requesting information. For example, calling a museum to find out the hours and the admission fee is done in an impersonal manner, but calling someone, in a position of honor and respect, at home, to request information which could have been obtained elsewhere, is done in a different way, usually apologetically. Children can also be taught to observe, in their daily experiences, other ways of requesting information which are different because of different social settings. In this way, children are aided in becoming continual language learners.

Another way to establish contrived situations for specific language use and growth is the use of creative dramatics in the classroom. Creative dramatics is not children's theater which is a highly structured situation with memorized lines, props, costumes and similar requirements. Rather, it consists of stimulus and a loose structure, contrived by the leader, in which the players have a framework within which to work. Also, there is a good deal of freedom within which to develop creatively their character, or the plot. Creative dramatics may involve either dramatic play in which players are placed in a particular situation and asked to act out their response, or story dramatization in which the players take on characters from a familiar story and act out the plot. Creative dramatics is especially useful for those situations which do not present themselves very often and yet which we want our students to experience, particularly those language situations in which strong or subtle emotions are involved.

In attempting to develop a child's second language orally, some changes in this approach are obviously required. If the child is at the early stages of learning a second language, much more attention must be placed on teaching the basic elements of vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation. There is a much greater need for modeling and patterning various elements of the new language for the learner who will need more time to learn these elements. Yet many of the previously discussed guidelines will apply to developing oral ability in a second language. Research recently undertaken has indicated that many aspects of second language acquisition are similar to first language acquisition. Thus, children learning a second language also need many opportunities to hear and use the new language in an open atmosphere where they feel free to experiment with their newly acquired language. Whenever appropriate, the children should be placed in a communicative setting, contrived or real, to use their new language. As the students hear and use the new language again and again, it will be continually revised until it approximates the standard version of the speech community.

Children's oral language ability is a very important factor affecting their reading success. Recent research indicates that reading is not entirely a process

of extracting meaning from the printed page, but that it also involves the reader bringing his background, including his oral language, to the printed page and using it to predict meaning based upon selected cues from the printed page. The good reader seems to predict content as he reads and to use only enough information, graphic, syntactic, or semantic, from the text to confirm or change his predictions. The beginning reader, who is not familiar with the written version of language, needs a lot of information. The fluent reader needs much less. It is not surprising for a black dialect speaker to read "He go. . ." for "He goes. . ." and the story is told of the nun who, paging through the newspaper and glimpsing a headline which read "Jesus Christ To Be Honored" found, upon looking back, that the headline actually said "Judge Crist To Be Honored". In both cases the readers imposed their own language and meaning upon the printed page as well as extracting language and meaning from it. Only in the second case did this process interfere with obtaining the correct meaning.

In summary, instructional strategies for oral language development, whether a first or a second language, center on identifuing language needs of individual children, providing whatever modeling, practice, or observation is appropriate, and then placing the language learners in a setting, contrived or real, in which they must use those oral language skills in order to communicate. A free, encouraging atmosphere can greatly aid this language growth.

This brief presentation has dealt only with general guidelines for oral language development. The following references provide more specific and fully detailed activities based in whole or in part on the above guidelines.

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CHAPTER V

THREE PATTERNS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Eduardo M. Hinojosa, M.S.

The creation of Title VII-ESEA under the Bilingual Education Act of 1967 focused attention on the instruction in two languages for a portion or all of the curriculum in a school district. Most of the programs in bilingual-bicultural education teach in the language the child brings from home in addition to instruction in English. However, there is a significant difference among these programs. For purposes of discussion, the plans of instruction are categorized in three patterns with slight variations that make each a unique approach. Bilingual-Bicultural Education is based on the idea that education should be provided for all children and its primary purpose is "Learning Regardless of Language".

Among the first programs in Bilingual-Bicultural Education created prior to 1967 was the one in which instruction was given in Spanish and in English. The Concurrent Method, as it later became known, used Spanish and English interchangeably. This approach is quite atypical because the children's responses are based on the language the teacher is using for instruction. The teacher begins the lesson by speaking either in Spanish or in English and the students respond in the language being spoken. The teacher must be consistent. She should always use one language until a story, or a concept being presented, is completed. Often the children will ask for a favorite story to be read again in the second language. This is certainly an acceptable practice, but the story should be completed in one language before beginning the second language. Both languages should not be interjected into the same reading.

The following is an example of how a beginning lesson will be conducted:

Teacher: Good morning, children.
Students: Good morning, teacher.

Maestra: Buenos días, niños.
Estudiantes: Buenos días, maestra.

T: How are you today?
S: Fine, thank you.

M: ¿Como estan ustedes?
E: Muy bien, gracias.

T: Now we will salute the flag.
Ahora saludaremos a la bandera.
S: I pledge. . .justice for all.
Yo juro. . .justicia para todos.

T: We will begin our reading lesson with Little Red Riding Hood.
Ahora leeremos Caperucita Roja.

The Concurrent Approach may be used throughout the curriculum: Math, Social Studies, Science, and the Language Arts. These components of the curriculum are usually taught concurrently in the primary grades. It is the belief of the proponents of this approach that this type of training in the earlier grades, will equip the children to make a more satisfactory transition to English while maintaining a degree of proficiency in Spanish when they reach the upper grades. Although the goal of this program becomes one of maintaining the development of bilingual literacy as much as is feasible, English becomes the primary medium of instruction in the upper grades. It is further assumed that the children will be able to acquire a degree of bilinguality and at the same time be able to function successfully in an English setting.

A second pattern emerged in Bilingual-Bicultural Education that is based on the premise that the learning common to all children, necessary for success in school, begins in the home. At the time of their entrance into the school setting, these youngsters have established the phonology and syntactical structure of their native language. Furthermore, their emotional make-up and personality together with the concepts required for further learning are already formed. To minimize failure and frustration for these beginning students, teachers should accept them where they are linguistically without the introduction of a new language. This will eliminate cultural and personality conflicts between the child and the new environment and will enable him to utilize fully his educational background.

The supporters of this second pattern in Bilingual-Bicultural Education believe that a child whose native language is Spanish should be introduced to the instructional program in Spanish because he has the basic concepts in that language. Simultaneously the teacher is building the child's oral English language without the introduction of the printed symbol. This is based on the idea that the first language interference is minimized because English is taught

as a second language enabling the child to utilize his first language to learn the second language.

The teacher must consider those factors applicable to all children to determine if the child is ready to read. If he is, beginning reading instruction should proceed in an orderly fashion in Spanish. No English reading activities should be introduced at this time.

The transition to instruction in the second language, English or Spanish, is begun when the child has learned significant language patterns and concepts which will enable him to recognize them when presented in the printed form of the second language. When the children have acquired adequate facility in both languages, the curricular pattern emerges whereby any subject may be successfully taught in either of the two languages. Regardless of the child's native language this Bilingual-Bicultural Approach should produce students who are equally proficient in two languages by the time they finish senior high school.

The third approach to Bilingual-Bicultural Education presents beliefs that set it apart in curricular pattern approach while being identical to the other two approaches in its goals for achievement. The adherents of this program believe that the approach to Bilingual-Bicultural Education is not for the purpose of facilitating the child's transfer from Spanish to English, or vice versa. Rather, its purpose is the development of a bilingual-bicultural citizen who through the school years has been taught and has learned in both languages.

To produce a bilingual-bicultural citizen, the school curriculum has to be devised accordingly. The idea brought forth by this third approach is that during the school day blocks of time are established in which children learn in an assigned language. Students whose primary language is Spanish are taught in Spanish in blocks of time assigned for Language Arts, Science, Math, and Social Studies in order to provide for more positive achievement. Since the primary language of these children is Spanish, they can achieve better in Spanish at this point. During the same school day these children are provided some blocks of time that deal with the same subjects in which similar or different concepts are introduced in English. Children whose primary language is English are taught in blocks of time dealing with the instruction in English while some time is devoted to Spanish. It is the belief of the proponents of this approach that at a given point in their instructional program these children, regardless of their primary language, will be truly bilingual and thus will be able to participate with equal confidence in classes regardless of the language used for instruction.

It should be noted that the approaches to Bilingual-Bicultural Education, although differing in techniques and curriculum design, seek to achieve the same goal: Individuals who are truly bilingual and bicultural and who, in addition, have mutual respect for different languages and different cultures.

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